

Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. II

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The Journal of Educational Sociology

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EDITORIAL NOTES

Recent years have witnessed a very rapid development in psychiatric clinics established for the purpose of child correction and child guidance, particularly with reference to mental hygiene and behavior problems of all sorts such as truancy, delinquency, and the like. In the earliest development these clinics were identified with juvenile courts to aid the court in the wise disposition and effective handling of delinquents brought in by social workers and assigned to social workers or reform schools and other agencies. More recently these clinics have served a wider purpose and many of them are established already by school systems as a means of prevention; that is, they are designed to handle the child before he comes to the juvenile court or reaches the state of delinquency.

It is generally conceded that these clinics, manned by psychiatrists, have been limited in outlook and have not given due attention to the social factors involved in behavior. The psychiatrist is inclined to look for instances of behavior problems in abnormal physiological or psychological conditions. More recent evidence warrants the conclusion that most problems are not the result of abnormal conditions but are the result of the social situations under which experiences have been acquired. For that reason there is an imperative need, widely felt, for clinics that take into full account the social

factors involved in behavior difficulties. A social behavior clinic is designed to meet that condition.

The social behavior clinic, therefore, may serve two purposes. First, the training of social workers, visiting teachers, school administrators, and sociologists to head up such clinics in public-school systems. This is no little part of the function of such a clinic in a School of Education. Second, the social behavior clinic will provide opportunity for scientific research into the causes and nature of behavior problems and will thus provide a body of data that will ensure wisdom in the handling of problem children. This phase of the work of the clinic is primarily conceived for its contributions to research and research technique in educational sociology. The purpose is to bring together experts in the various fields, the physician, the sociologist, the psychiatrist, the psychologist, and the social worker, and through the utilization of all these skilled experts to discover the causes and provide the cure of social ills. It is the purpose of the clinic to provide research into the weaknesses and strength of personality, the factors in the development of personality, and the criteria for its adequate development.

The social behavior clinic therefore becomes an agency of teacher training and a means of scientific research. The department of educational sociology of New York University has planned to have such a clinic in the new building. Professor Zorbaugh will head this clinic as its director. This development along with the research project under the direction of Professor Thrasher establishes a new era in the creation of a science of educational sociology.

INDEX OF VOLUME I

An index has been prepared of Volume I of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* and may be had by writing to the office of *THE JOURNAL*, 13 Astor Place, New York.

CURRICULUM AND MEASUREMENT

J. L. MERIAM

The article by Superintendent Washburne and his research assistant, Rath, in the November issue of *The Elementary School Journal* entitled, "The High School Achievement of Children Trained Under the Individual Technique," is a type of educational report greatly needed. I submit further evidence in support of Washburne's general conclusions with the hope of encouraging others to use the method of measurement here exhibited.

Superintendent Washburne has been carrying on an interesting experiment in education—the more interesting because the experiment is in a regular public-school system. Conditions are thus normal. Results may be more convincing by reason of this condition. Mr. Washburne began his experiment in the schools of Winnetka in the fall of 1919. He states that it was four or five years later when the reorganization of the schools was "fairly complete." He continued the experiment four years more before measuring the results as reported in the article referred to above.

THE PROBLEM

Washburne's method of measurement is not that of the conventional standardized tests, but that of comparing the high-school attainments of his former pupils with those of other students in that high school who had had, in other elementary schools, quite a different training. Here is a bit of looseness in method readily recognized. That is, high-school achievement is not—at least, may not be—the product of elementary-school work alone. Experience out of school has doubtless been a teacher, good or bad. And there are thus many influences beyond our present ability to consider. Pending the advancement of our educational research, we may tentatively assume that two groups of pupils, in a given school area, will have sufficiently similar out-of-school experiences to warrant the conclusion that differences in high-school work are largely due to differences in

elementary school training. It must be emphasized, however, that such conclusions are dependent upon the validity of the assumptions made. Such conclusions are necessarily inaccurate to the extent that not all of the influential agencies in the pupils' progress have been taken into account. In his study Washburne presents a table of median intelligence scores showing no significant differences in respect to intelligence.

Washburne was naturally interested in knowing how his method of "individual technique" affected his pupils. He chose the method of waiting until his elementary-school pupils advanced into the high school. He then compared the grades these pupils received with those received by other students in that high school who came from other elementary schools. He presents a table¹ of distribution of grades received by Winnetka pupils compared with "all others," in the major subjects of the high-school course. This table is in terms of numerical equivalents for grades as follows: A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, F=0. A summary of this table shows:

	Eng.	Math.	Hist.	Sci.	Lang.	Com.	Man.	Arts.	Total
Winnetka.....	2.27	2.19	2.07	2.02	2.12	2.12	2.29	2.16	
All others.....	2.17	2.04	2.01	1.97	1.95	2.26	2.30	2.07	

It is readily noted that Winnetka is superior—however slight—in all subjects save commerce and manual arts. A footnote to Washburne's article states: "A difference in scholastic average of .20 or greater was found to be significant." A correction was published in *The Elementary School Journal* a month later stating that this footnote was in error. However, Washburne claims a significant superiority of the Winnetka pupils in mathematics and languages, and also a superiority in the general summary of all subjects and all classes. The scholastic differences in these three cases are recognized as .15, .17, and .09, respectively.

These differences do not make out a clear and strong case for Winnetka. I venture to present other aspects of Washburne's data and supplement data from another school in the

¹ *Elementary School Journal*, xxviii, 219.

hope of making out a better case for the Winnetka schools, and experiments of that character.

THE DATA

I secured from Superintendent Washburne the distribution of grades; i.e., the number of A's, B's, C's, D's, and F's, given in the various high-school subjects. These distributions are expressed in percentages in Table I. This table includes also distributions of grades in a similar study made at the University of Missouri reported in 1915² and again in 1920.³

In the Missouri study the grades E (excellent), S (superior), M (medium), I (inferior), and F (failure) were used. A comparison of the achievements of these two schools can be made only by assuming the correspondence of the two five-division scales, $\begin{smallmatrix} A, B, C, D, F, \\ E, S, M, I, F, \end{smallmatrix}$ this assumption may be allowed for the present study. In Table I the column headed E shows the percentage distribution of grades given in an orthodox city high school (Columbia, Missouri) to students who had their elementary-school work in the experimental (E) school.⁴ Column C shows the distribution of grades for the entire city high school including the relatively few students from the E school. Column W shows the distribution of grades given to students with previous schooling in the Winnetka grade schools. Similarly column O shows distribution for students from all other schools with which the Winnetka schools were compared. To make the Winnetka study comparable with the Missouri study, the original grades for columns W and O were combined by actual count to make the column WO. This then corresponds in character to column C.

Thus Table I may be read: Four-and-five-tenths per cent of all grades received in high-school English classes by students trained in the Missouri experimental school were of the highest grade E, while 2.7 per cent was the standard for the city high school in which these students were enrolled. Similarly, 9 per cent of the grades received by students from the

² *Journal of Educational Psychology*, vi, 361-364, 1915.

³ Meriam, J. L., *Child Life and the Curriculum*, p. 451.

⁴ Described in Meriam's *Child Life and the Curriculum*.

Winnetka grade schools were of this high-grade A, compared with 8.5 per cent as the standard for the whole of this high school.

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GRADES

		E	C	W	WO	O
English	EA	4.5	2.7	9.0	8.5	8.4
	SB	30.9	27.7	35.6	31.6	30.4
	MC	46.2	38.3	35.6	37.9	38.7
	ID	16.0	23.8	13.6	14.6	14.9
	FF	2.3	7.2	6.3	7.3	7.5
Languages ⁵	EA	3.5	1.5	7.0	7.2	7.2
	SB	54.1	28.3	29.6	27.1	26.3
	MC	27.5	32.5	40.8	35.1	33.3
	ID	10.0	22.8	13.0	18.4	20.1
	FF	4.8	15.0	9.5	12.1	13.0
History	EA	3.1	2.3	6.3	7.1	7.4
	SB	35.9	27.2	25.2	24.0	23.6
	MC	43.3	51.7	43.7	40.3	39.2
	ID	12.5	14.5	18.4	20.6	21.4
	FF	4.8	4.1	6.3	7.8	8.3
Mathematics	EA	2.9	0.0	11.6	11.2	11.1
	SB	31.1	22.9	30.2	26.1	24.8
	MC	30.6	24.9	30.6	32.8	33.5
	ID	18.9	29.3	20.1	18.7	18.3
	FF	8.4	22.6	7.4	11.1	12.3
Science	EA	3.3	5.8	4.7	7.0	7.5
and	SB	21.4	31.2	32.4	26.7	25.4
Manual Arts	MC	65.9	53.4	41.2	41.2	41.3
and	ID	9.3	8.3	14.8	19.9	21.0
Home Economics	FF	0.0	0.2	6.7	5.1	4.7
Average ⁶	EA	3.4	2.3	7.7	8.2	8.3
Major	SB	39.2	27.5	30.6	27.1	26.1
High-School	MC	40.2	38.9	38.4	37.4	37.2
Subjects	ID	12.8	20.3	16.0	18.4	19.1
	FF	4.2	10.7	7.2	8.7	9.1

TABLE II
HIGH GRADES (E+S, A+B)

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	35.4	30.4	44.6	40.1	38.8
Languages.....	57.6	29.8	36.6	34.3	33.5
History.....	39.0	29.5	31.5	31.1	31.0
Mathematics.....	34.0	22.9	41.8	37.3	35.9
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	24.7	37.0	37.1	33.7	32.9
Average.....	42.6	29.8	38.3	35.3	34.4

⁵ German and Latin, two subjects in the Missouri school, are here combined under "Language" to correspond with the Winnetka school.

⁶ Commercial subjects in the Winnetka schools are omitted to correspond with the Missouri school which did not include commercial subjects.

TABLE III
LOW GRADES (I+F, D+F)

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	18.3	31.0	19.9	21.9	22.4
Languages.....	14.8	37.8	22.5	30.5	33.1
History.....	17.3	18.6	24.7	28.4	29.7
Mathematics.....	27.3	51.9	27.5	29.8	30.6
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	9.3	8.5	21.5	25.0	25.7
Average.....	17.0	31.0	23.2	27.1	28.2

TABLE IV
AVERAGE MARKS
Using numerical equivalents for grades

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	2.19	1.94	2.27	2.19	2.17
Languages.....	2.41	1.78	2.12	1.98	1.95
History.....	2.19	2.08	2.07	2.01	2.01
Mathematics.....	1.85	1.47	2.19	2.07	2.04
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	2.18	2.31	2.13	2.10	2.10
Average.....	2.24	1.89	2.16	2.09	2.07

TABLE V
MEDIAN MARKS
Using numerical equivalents for grades

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	2.69	2.49	2.85	2.74	2.71
Languages.....	3.14	2.38	2.68	2.55	2.51
History.....	2.75	2.61	2.58	2.54	2.52
Mathematics.....	2.48	1.91	2.73	2.61	2.58
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	2.63	2.76	2.69	2.61	2.59
Average.....	2.82	2.48	2.70	2.61	2.58

Table II shows a grouping of the high grades combined and Table III a grouping of the low grades combined. Thus in these two tables, freed from the general middle class (grades M and C), the reader can more readily note the percentage of better and poorer grades.

Table IV presents the average marks in the major high-school subjects on the basis of the numerical equivalents used in Washburne's study as indicated above; viz., E and A=4, S and B=3, M and C=2, I and D=1, F and F=0. This table is thus arranged to make possible a comparison of data used by Washburne.

Table V is similar to Table IV except that the median marks are given. This is thus arranged to make possible a comparison with data used in the Missouri experiment.⁷

⁷ See Table XII in Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum*, p. 451.

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Look now at Table I; compare the percentages of grades in column W with those in column WO. One readily gets the impression that in the New Trier Township High School, pupils from the Winnetka grade schools have a higher percentage of the better grades and a lower percentage of poorer grades, compared with the standard for that high school. There are five minor exceptions, in these 24 comparisons. But an examination of Tables II and III, where the two better grades are combined and similarly the two poorer grades, shows a perfectly consistent higher standing of the Winnetka pupils. Similarly Tables IV and V show uniformly more of the better grades and fewer of the poorer grades.

Compare columns E and C in like manner: the Missouri University Experimental School and the Columbia (Missouri) High School. In Table I the experimental school pupils have better grades in all but three of the 24 comparisons. In Tables II and III there are two exceptions, and the same exceptions in Table IV and V.

The *amount* of difference between the grades of the Winnetka and the Missouri pupils on the one side and the grades indicated by the standards in the two high schools on the other side may not be tremendously significant, but the consistency of the superiority becomes positively significant.

But there is one aspect of quantitative difference that merits attention. Note in Table II the amount of superiority of the "average" high grades of the E pupils over the C pupils; viz., 12.8. Similarly the difference between the W pupils and the WO pupils is only 3.0. Likewise in Table III the difference in the "average" low grades is 14.0 and 3.9, respectively. These figures clearly indicate that the superiority of the pupils in the Missouri Experimental School over the standard in that city high school is greater than the superiority of the Winnetka pupils over the standard in the high school they attended. This comparison is yet more striking when one notes in the average grades in Table I that obviously the standard of grading for C is higher than for WO. In the

former 29.8 per cent of grades are E and S while in the latter 35.3 per cent are of similar rank. The C school gives 31.0 per cent of its grades as I and F, while the WO schools gives only 27.1 per cent as poor grades.

CONCLUSIONS

In his study referred to above, Washburne quite naturally explains the slight superiority of his pupils as due to the "individual technique" emphasized in the Winnetka schools. This individual technique is kin to the Dalton laboratory plan. The individual progresses as his ability and inclination warrant. All pupils have a given minimum standard to meet the conventional school subjects. There surely are merits in this technique, and Superintendent Washburne knows his own school. However, the figures given above and the "group and creative activities" which "occupy on the program about half of each morning and half of each afternoon"^a lead me to propose another interpretation.

In the conclusions to his own study, Washburne mentions—without emphasis—the leadership of the Winnetka pupils in extracurriculum activities and various pupil organizations. His Tables VI and VII are good evidence. There is a marked tendency in recent years to lessen the time and attention to the conventional three R's, without lowering in the least the standards of achievement. The Winnetka program noted in the previous paragraph is one item of good evidence. But I think Washburne misinterprets his own school when he declares "... the high-school record of Winnetka pupils has significance in a general evaluation of the individual technique."

The Winnetka program provides one half the forenoon and one half the afternoon for creative activities aside from the conventional three R's. My experiment at the University of Missouri provided a program of *all* the forenoon and *all* the afternoon on such activities—with no provision for the conventional school subjects or for "individual technique" in such subjects. Results? The Winnetka pupils with half

^a Washburne, "A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools," pp. 20-21.

time on such creative activities—not generally prominent in the conventional grade schools—did noticeably better high-school work than did their school mates. With double that time and emphasis on such creative activities and without any “technique” on the three R’s, the pupils of the Missouri experiment not only excelled the standard in their high school, but also surpassed the superiority of the Winnetka pupils—as indicated by the figures above. It seems, therefore, probable that the creative activities in a much enriched curriculum is a far more contributing factor than the individual technique.

If this interpretation is at all sane these two experiments ought to prompt other similar ones. And the public, whose servants the schools are, would welcome such movements.

One other conclusion. These two experiments exhibit a method of measurement needing more attention. In each case those studying the problem waited about ten years to allow normal results to be the measurement of achievement. Tests of school work in terms of that selfsame school work is a form of inbreeding. There is need of measurement in terms of the larger educational objectives. Success in high-school work—even as measured by grades—is only one aspect of the objectives for grade-school study. It is one measure. To measure much further in terms of home life, public life, industry, leisure, opens great possibilities.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THREE SCHOOL POPULATIONS

VERNER MARTIN SIMS

The relative differences among the homes possessed by various social groups has long been a favorite subject for speculation, but definite and reliable information has awaited the appearance of a group instrument that would give an objective and quantitative measure of home conditions. The Sims score card for socio-economic status claims to be such an instrument. This score card, a group measure suitable for use in grades IV to XII, consists of a series of twenty-three questions relative to the cultural, social, and economic conditions of the home from which the testee comes. These questions were selected from a total list of 56 such questions on the basis of:

1. The ability of the child to furnish the information.
2. The internal consistency as a part of the total series, measured by:
 - a. Relatively high correlation with the total of all other questions.
 - b. Relatively low degree of association with the other question.
3. The reliability as measured by the percent of like answers given by paired siblings from the same home.
4. The per cent of the population studied that possessed the item called for in the question.

The directions for giving, the phraseology of the questions, the method of answering, supplementary questions, and the system of scoring have, through experimentation, been so worked out as to make the entire procedure objective and to reduce errors and misrepresentations to a minimum.

In another paper¹ the writer has presented the socio-economic status of a selected group of occupations. The purpose of the present paper is to report in detail the results obtained from the giving of the score card to three school populations, these populations more or less representing three different communities: city, town, and country. The groups tested were: (1) 638 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade

¹ *Journal of Educational Research*, June, 1928.

children in the city of New Haven, Connecticut; (2) 180 fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in the town of Ruston, Louisiana; and (3) 227 fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in the consolidated rural schools of Lincoln Parish, in Louisiana.

New Haven, a city of approximately 175,000 population, is probably slightly superior to the average industrial city because of the presence within its limits of one of the larger universities. The 638 cases were selected from the city's school population as follows: The superintendent was asked to select five schools, three of these drawing its pupils from homes which he considered representative of the average homes in the city, one drawing pupils from the very poor homes, and one drawing from the better homes of the city. In each of these five schools, one section or classroom from the sixth grade, one from the seventh, and one from the eighth were tested, each section or classroom having been recommended by the principal as representative of its particular grade. Thus the records of fifteen sections or classrooms scattered throughout the city were secured.

Ruston, Louisiana, a town of approximately 5,000 population, is, in the opinion of the writer, rather above the average Southern town. Within its limits is located one of the State colleges of Louisiana, and because of its nearness to oil and lumber resources there are found among its residents an abnormally large number of wealthy people. The town has two elementary schools for white children. The 180 cases here mentioned included all of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in one of these schools and all of the fifth and seventh grade pupils in the second school that were present on the particular days that the schools were visited. In Louisiana but seven years of elementary education are maintained; consequently, here, as in New Haven, the group represents the last three years of the elementary school.

The rural school group of 227 cases constituted the entire fifth, sixth, and seventh grade population of three or four consolidated schools that are located in the parish and the fifth and sixth grade population of the fourth one. Lincoln Parish is the parish in which Ruston is located and to a certain

extent is subject to the same selective conditions as the town; but in addition the group tested made up but about two thirds of the entire parish population for these three grades, the remaining one third being found in small one- and two-room schools. This rural group, then, is perhaps of a higher level than the average school community.

The economic or cultural facts called for in the several questions contained in the score card, followed by the abbreviated form which will be used to designate the question, are as follows:

CONDITION CALLED FOR IN QUESTION	ABBREVIATION
1. Presence of a telephone in the home.	Telephone
2. Presence of a furnace in the home.	Furnace
3. Presence of a bathroom in the home.	Bath
4. Possession of a bank account in own name.	Bank Acc't.
5. Father having attended college.	Father College
6. Mother having attended college.	Mother College
7. Father having attended high school.	Father High School
8. Mother having attended high school.	Mother High School
9. Mother attends lectures.	Mother Lectures
10. Own room for study.	Own Room
11. Private lessons in music taken.	Music Lessons
12. Private lessons in dancing taken.	Dancing Lessons
13. Mother belongs to clubs.	Mother Clubs
14. Membership in clubs that require dues.	Clubs
15. Family attends concerts.	Concerts
16. Vacations spent away from home.	Vacations Away
17. Having regular dental work done.	Regular Dental Work
18. Presence of servants in the home.	Servants
19. Possession by the family of an automobile.	Auto
20. Magazines subscribed to by the family.	Magazines
21. Books possessed in the home.	Books
22. Ratio of the persons per room.	Room Person
23. Occupation of the father.	Father's Occupation

Table I presents the percentage of each of the three populations answering each of these questions and the percentage possessing the item or condition called for in each question; part 1 presenting those questions that are dichotomous, that is simply possessed or not possessed, part 2 presenting those where the amount of possession is a variable. The ratio of the persons to a room is secured by dividing the number of rooms the family occupies by the number of persons in the family. On the basis of the information furnished concerning the occupation of the father, the occupation is classified in one of the following groups:

Group I. Professional men, proprietors of large businesses, and high executives; also bankers, brokers, inspectors (government and railroad, but not shop inspectors).

Group II. Commercial service, clerical service, large land-owners, managerial service of a lower order than in Group I, and business proprietors employing from five to ten men.

Group III. Artisan proprietors, petty officials, printing trades employees, skilled laborers with some managerial responsibility, shop owners, farmers and business proprietors employing one to five men.

Group IV. Skilled laborers (with exception of printers), who work for some one else, building trades, transportation trades, manufacturing trades involving skilled labor, personal service. Small shop owners and farmers doing their own work.

Group V. Unskilled laborers, common laborers, helpers, "hands," peddlers, varied employment, vendors, tenants, unemployed (unless it represents the leisured class or retired).

TABLE I

PART 1	CITY		TOWN		COUNTRY	
	No. Ans.	% Poss.	No. Ans.	% Poss.	No. Ans.	% Poss.
1. Telephone.....	638	42	180	63	227	32
2. Furnace.....	638	48	180	01	227	02
3. Bath.....	635	80	180	57	227	20
4. Bank Account.....	632	52	180	33	227	20
5. Father College.....	638	11	180	25	227	18
6. Mother College.....	638	05	180	30	226	16
7. Father High School.....	638	29	180	72	225	55
8. Mother High School.....	638	28	180	73	224	56
9. Mother Lectures.....	638	18	180	33	223	21
10. Own room.....	638	43	180	54	227	48
11. Music Lessons.....	638	30	180	13	227	06
12. Dancing Lessons.....	638	07	180	01	227	004
13. Mother Clubs.....	630	35	180	38	225	22
14. Clubs.....	626	43	180	31	227	06
15. Concerts.....	630	49	180	79	227	90
16. Vacations Away.....	631	50	180	67	227	45
17. Regular Dental Work.....	624	25	180	26	227	09

PART 2

18. Servants	No. Ans.	% possessing: One or more all the time	One part time	None		
City.....	631	.09	.08	.83		
Town.....	180	.10	.33	.57		
Country.....	227	.06	.15	.79		
19. Auto.	No. Ans.	% possessing: Two or more	One	None		
City.....	637	.07	.33	.60		
Town.....	180	.13	.58	.29		
Country.....	227	.06	.51	.43		
20. Magazines.	No. Ans.	% possessing: Three or more	Two	One	None	
City.....	629	.38	.24	.15	.23	
Town.....	180	.48	.19	.19	.14	
Country.....	226	.22	.18	.27	.33	
21. Books	No. Ans.	% possessing: 501 or more	500-126	125-26	26-0	
City.....	614	.05	.16	.27	.52	
Town.....	180	.06	.15	.35	.44	
Country.....	227	.02	.08	.27	.63	
22. Room Persons	No. Ans.	% possessing: 2.01 plus	2.00-1.51	1.50-1.01	1.00-.51	.50-0
City.....	634	.05	.13	.20	.53	.09
Town.....	178	.06	.05	.24	.58	.07
Country....	222	.03	.03	.20	.67	.07
23. Father's Occupation	No. Ans.	% possessing: Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V
City.....	604	.12	.14	.27	.28	.20
Town.....	177	.05	.18	.43	.25	.09
Country.....	225	.04	.07	.49	.29	.11

Examination of part I indicates that the town group surpassed the other two groups in percentage possessing on questions 1 (telephone), 5, 6, 7, 8 (parents' education), 9 (mother lectures), 10 (own room), 13 (mother clubs), and 16 (vacations away). The city group surpassed the other groups on questions 2 (furnace), 3 (bath), 4 (bank account), 11 (music lessons), 12 (dancing lessons) and 14 (clubs). The country group surpassed the other groups on question 15 (concert). While in the case of question 17 (dental work) the city and town group rank about the same, both surpassing the country group. In part 2 it is not so easy to decide upon the groups that surpass, but it seems that the town group surpassed the other groups on questions 18 (servants), 19 (auto), 20 (magazines), and 21 (books); while on questions 22 (room persons) and 23 (father's occupation) the town and city scored about alike, definitely surpassing the country

on question 22 and perhaps being superior to this group on question 23. This last question is doubtful, however, because of the fact that occupational group III, which includes small farmers, was extremely large in the country population. In the case of group I, which includes professional men and large business men, the city surpassed the other population; but the town made up of this difference on groups II and III.

The disadvantage and danger involved in using isolated items as measures of home conditions are readily seen from the material here presented. Depending upon the item used, any one of these three groups might be pronounced superior to the others. The existing differences among the homes from which these pupils come can best be shown by combining these questions into a total and comparing these totals. Elsewhere² the writer has described how each question in the score card is given a weighting depending upon its value as a part of the total, and how these weights are totaled and averaged to secure a measure of the socio-economic status. The possible score of an individual may range from 36 to 0.

Table II presents the average score, the standard deviation, and the sigma of unreliability of the average of the three distributions under consideration. It will be seen that the town averaged highest, the city second, and the country lowest; but, what is even more interesting, the range of the city group was greatest, that of the town second, and the country group came last with a very narrow range. That is, in this city there is found a wide range; many extremely high ranking homes and many extremely low ranking homes; in the town this range is not so great; while in the country the range is very narrow and at the lower end of the distribution table.

That these differences are true differences so far as the groups here used are concerned is shown by the following

TABLE III
The average score and standard deviation of each group

	Average	S. D.	% of unreliability of average
City.....	13.56	7.02	.26
Town.....	16.84	6.08	.45
Country.....	11.16	4.48	.29

² "Measurement of Socio-economic Status," Public School Publishing Co.

facts. The difference between the town and city averages is 2.28, while the sigma of unreliability of this difference³ is .52; that is, the difference is more than four times the sigma of unreliability and is a true difference. The difference of 5.68 between the town and country averages is approximately eleven times its sigma of unreliability which is .53; and the difference of 2.40 between the city and country averages is more than six times the sigma of unreliability of this difference which is .39. We may conclude then that there is but slight chance of averages determined from similar groups ever overlapping.

The interpretation of these results is a delicate task. If we can assume a fair sampling from the New Haven school system, three possible explanations are presented: (1) the questions used, neither singly nor as a whole, have like significance in the three communities; (2) the schools, with a different degree of rigidity, selecting their enrollment from the total homes of the respective communities; (3) there are actual differences in the socio-economic status of the homes found in the different communities.

Taken singly some of the questions obviously do not have like significance in the three communities. For example, the possession of a furnace is by far a greater luxury in the southern communities than in the northern city; while, on the other hand, servants would probably be found in the homes of the South more frequently than in those of the North because of the cheapness of labor; or, the possession of a bathroom is much less expensive, and thus more within the reach of the economically poorer homes in the city and town than within the reach of those in the rural community; while concerts in the form of community productions of an amateur nature are much more frequently attended by the members of a rural community than by members of the urban community. Many of the questions, however, would seem to be indications of superior home conditions, whether possessed by the rural, town, or city community. Such questions as "Education of Parents," "Books," "Magazines," "Occupation of the

³ E. L. Thorndike, *Mental and Social Measurements*, 1916.

Father," "Automobile," "Telephone," and others are surely significant whenever possessed. Consideration of the questions will convince one that most of the questions are indications of home background whenever possessed, and, more than this, that those that do not have like significance will tend to counterbalance each other in such manner that the total is a significant index. The advantage of the score card is just this fact that the inequalities will neutralize each other so that a high score on the score card indicates favorable home conditions wherever possessed and a low score indicates unfavorable home environment whether found in an urban or a rural community.

There certainly is little doubt as to the influence of the second possibility. There is no evidence that the same forces are causing elimination in the three communities or that these forces, whatever they may be, are of equal strength; and common sense would indicate to the contrary. The attractions of the school, the enforcement of the attendance laws, and the industrial nature of the city population favor the retention of a greater proportion of the school population throughout the elementary school; while the increased age of the city group, they being on the average one year older, and the large proportion of foreigners would tend to make the elimination greater in this group. Elsewhere⁴ the writer has shown that in the smaller communities each succeeding grade after the fifth grade is more intelligent and comes from better homes than the preceding grade. In all probability this selection is more rigid in the rural community. In addition the Negro population, which compares with the slum district of the city group, is not included in the town or rural group.

In the opinion of the writer the city schools most nearly represent the general population of the community in which they are located with the town schools ranking second and the country schools last. To what extent this is true one cannot say, but if it be true a fair sampling from these three communities would vary from the groups we have used as follows: (1) the difference between the city and town group would be less pronounced; (2) the difference between the town and

⁴ "The Selected Nature of a Particular School Population." *School Review*, May, 1928.

country would be more pronounced; and (3) the difference between the city and country would also be more pronounced.

After taking into consideration the effects of this difference in the selected nature of the three school populations, are there actual differences in the socio-economic status of the communities? For the rural community as compared with both the town and city, the answer is obviously "Yes." The facts and suppositions presented above point toward even more radical differences than those shown. When we consider the town as compared with the city, the question cannot be answered. After accounting for differences in the selected nature of the respective school populations, we do not know whether the average of the city would still be below that of the town or whether it would become equal to or greater than that of the town. The writer is inclined to believe that if we exclude the Negro population there will still be found a slight difference in favor of the town. The existence within the city of very superior advantages for a small group of people and the very noticeable absence in the town of some of the luxuries of the city have a tendency to cause one to forget average conditions. The range of home conditions has been shown to be greater in the city than in the town, but it is well to note that this range is downward as well as upward, some city homes being much superior while others are much inferior to those found in the town. In comparing the two communities there is a tendency to overlook the fact that it is the possession of very superior home conditions by a small minority that gives the city its seeming advantage. The average home in a small town is little different from the average home in the city, but the chances of one's fitting in near this average are greater in the small town.

THE NEGRO PRESS AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION¹

GLADSTONE H. YEUELL

Although it is not possible to measure the suggestive influence of the press accurately, it is none the less real. Peters, in his *Foundations of Educational Sociology*, says: "The press determines the popular attitude toward moral, social, and industrial questions, putting back of them by way of reinforcement or repression the forces of social suggestion, sympathetic radiation, and imitation. Our moral attitudes, and social and industrial prejudices do not rest to any great extent on instinct. They are caught up from the atmosphere in which we live. Our thinking is whipped into line with that of the group of which we are members. . . . We aspire to dress and recreate ourselves and to think, appreciate, and act like 'everybody' else; and what 'everybody' does we gather largely through the press."

In order to answer the question "Do the readers of Negro papers get incentives therefrom which tend to make their conditions better or worse?" it was determined to analyze the content of certain representative papers with that end in view. Naturally education is defined in terms of Herbert Spencer's "Preparation for complete living."

The method used in analysis was the relative amount of space devoted to different types of news matter. Or, to be more specific, the unit of measure is the column inch. A column inch is an item of news one inch long and the width of a column.

The analysis was limited to the study of three typically representative Negro newspapers; viz., *The New York Age*, *The Pittsburgh Courier*, and *The Chicago Defender*. These are included in Gore's list of twelve leading Negro newspapers, and Gordon's twelve most outstanding papers published by Negroes in this country.

The New York Age was established in 1887. Its editions usually consist of ten pages. According to Ayer and Son's

¹ This article is based upon a study by N. S. Roberts and was presented as an address before the conference on educational sociology at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, Boston.

American Newspaper Annual and Directory for 1925, it has a circulation of 25,000 and is Republican in politics. It does not generally feature its front page with flashy headings of crime, and has long been noted for its cogent editorials. *The Age* endorsed the policy of the late Booker T. Washington, and is considered a conservative journal.

The Pittsburgh Courier is classed as neither a radical nor a conservative paper. It is hardly ever as militant as *The Chicago Defender*. On the other hand, it is more aggressive than *The New York Age*. Its size varies from sixteen to twenty pages. *The Courier* began publication in 1910. Politically, it is independent. Although it is listed in Ayer's American Newspaper Annual and Directory, no data could be found on its publication. However, copies of it are on sale throughout the South.

The Chicago Defender was established in 1906, and has had a phenomenal growth. In its issue of March 14, 1925, its circulation was given as 247,867. In politics, it is independent. *The Defender* is considered as sensational because it features its front page with large, red headings. It is militant in regard to the ballot, and stands for the enforcement of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. It supports the policies of W. E. B. DuBois, and holds that since a majority of Negroes have not a free and unrestricted use of the ballot, they have no effective weapon of protest, like the American Federation of Labor, the Farm Bloc, etc.

The following scheme of analysis was devised:

Advertisements (Legitimate). Most of the advertisements of the necessary wants of man come under this class. The assumption is, that if a reader is interested enough in them to invest his money, he has at least an even chance of receiving in return the same pecuniary value or its equivalent. The commodity purchased is thought of in terms of Social Betterment.

Athletics includes amateur, college, and professional baseball, basketball, and football; tennis, automobile racing, prize fighting, and other sports. In this study prize fighting is not thought of as demoralizing. Primarily, horse racing is enter-

taining, and is often referred to as "the sport of kings." Today it is not self-supporting, unless it is associated with some form of betting, either in the form of handbooks, or *parimutuel* machines. Hence horse racing was classed under "Unsavory News."

Culture. In this class of news are placed all news items that pertain to classical music, literature, art, science, invention, the radio, and amateur and professional high-class dramatics.

Economics include all mention of real-estate transactions, labor conditions, banks, insurances, the establishing and encouraging of business enterprises, and special articles on any phase of industry.

Editorials are restricted to the editors' comments on current topics, and editorials reprinted from other journals. The assumption is that editorials in general are constructive and advisory. Since these covered such a wide range of subjects, no attempt was made to further divide and classify them. A study of the classifications of these editorials would have no doubt proved interesting and instructive.

Education includes all articles that pertain to schools, colleges, formal education, some phases of educational legislation, educational endowments, and the like.

Foreign is any piece of news that is not wholly in relation to continental United States.

Health deals with news in regard to the annual observance of National Health Week, articles reprinted from the United States Public Health Service and State Boards of Health bulletins, and health and sanitation items written by physicians in the employ of newspapers, or by readers to the editors.

Interracial Good Will means that type of news that makes for better and more amicable relations and understanding between the two races. Under this heading are included all items that pertain to Annual Race Relations Sunday, at which time pastors of both races are urged to exchange pulpits. This innovation has proven a success in both the North and South, wherever it has been tried. The recent interracial

meetings held throughout the country were included under this heading.

Politics pertain to all news in regard to the ballot, elections, appointments to public offices, and some phases of legislation.

Religion includes church, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., and all forms of charitable and benevolent activities.

Miscellaneous is composed of items of a trivial nature, writings that are not classed under Culture, cross-word puzzles, recipes, jokes, caricatures, most of the cartoons, and news from the children's columns that could not be consistently classed under some other heading.

Personals include notices of births, deaths, marriages, lost relatives, society, lodges, out-of-town news, accidents, and those women's activities that could not be properly classed under Culture, Education, Politics, or Religion.

Theatricals pertain to all affairs of the cursory stage activities, vaudeville, "jazz," cabarets, "blues," and a majority of the phonograph record advertisements. Primarily music is considered as educational, but since the last four items are usually associated with discordant musical tones, they could not be classed otherwise than under Theatricals.

Advertisements (Questionable) are those advertisements that announce the sale of firearms, certain kinds of hair goods and cosmetics that do not make for racial cohesion, "quack" patent medicines, herb treatments, "pep gland," and clairvoyance information.

Crime includes news items pertaining to vice, crime, fights, "moonshine" brawls, and all forms of immorality that involve members of the same race.

Racial Friction refers to illegal discriminations, segregative legislation, lynchings, physical clashes between persons of the two races, and items of similar nature.

Unsavory News is made up of mention of divorces, scandals, gossip, civil suits, and suicides.

The division lines between these classes of news matter could not at all times be rigidly fixed. In seemingly ambiguous cases, the article in question was reread, scrutinized, and finally counted under the classification that seemed to have

more evidence in its favor. Regardless of the minor heading that the item was placed under, in the final analysis, it would fall under its proper classification in one of three large types of news matter. The three types are:

Social Betterment, all news that tends to make men better, morally, socially, physically, religiously, and educationally, or that tends to bring about tolerance, prudence, thrift, and better interracial understandings. Included in this classification are Legitimate Advertisements, Athletics, Culture, Economics, Education, Foreign, Health, Interracial Good Will, Politics, and Religion.

Neutral, news that does not influence society either constructively or destructively. Personals, Miscellaneous, and Theatricals, come under this category. Primarily theatricals are considered as educational, but since most of the theatricals of the present study include vaudeville, "blues," and "jazz," and are amusements pure and simple, they were put under neutral news. The position of "blues" and "jazz" in the musical world has not as yet been definitely decided. Prominent musicians differ on this question. This type of music must not be confused with high-class professional and amateur dramatics and classical musical recitals, subheadings under Culture and Social Betterment.

Antisocial, all news that might afford suggestion to any act that does not make for peace. Questionable Advertisements, Crime, Racial Friction, and Unsavory News, are minor headings under this group classification.

TABLE I

PAPER	TYPE OF MATERIAL	PER CENT OF AMOUNT
New York Age.....	Social Betterment	65.69
Pittsburgh Courier.....	Social Betterment	46.20
Chicago Defender.....	Social Betterment	37.11
New York Age.....	Neutral	22.97
Pittsburgh Courier.....	Neutral	33.30
Chicago Defender.....	Neutral	37.57
New York Age.....	Antisocial	11.34
Pittsburgh Courier.....	Antisocial	20.50
Chicago Defender.....	Antisocial	25.32

Table I shows the results of this analysis on a comparative basis:

In the light of the figures just cited, the central tendency seems to indicate that *The New York Age* ranks first in Social Betterment, and last in both Neutral and Antisocial News. *The Pittsburgh Courier* ranks second in the three large general classes of news matter. *The Chicago Defender* ranks first in the amount of space given to Neutral and Antisocial news, but last in Social Betterment news.

Finally, a comparison of this study was made with a research reported by Delos F. Wilcox, entitled "The American Newspaper, a Study in Social Psychology," *Annals of the American Academy*, vol. 16, pp. 56-92; "A Study of a New York Daily," reported by Byron C. Mathews in *The Independent*, vol. 68, pp. 82-86; and "A Statistical Study of the Contents of Newspapers," reported by Thomas R. Garth in *School and Society*, vol. 3, pp. 140-144. The result of these comparisons showed that the Negro press did not differ materially from the press in general throughout the country except in respect to Business, Finance, Industry, and Economics. This seems to be due to the fact that the negro press carries very little news matter that pertains to stocks and bonds, Wall and LaSalle Streets, the great international markets, the expansion of railroads, the basic industries of coal and iron mining, steel, agriculture, shipbuilding, and the sale and manufacture of automobiles, textiles, leather, and meat products.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The statistical data derived from the classifications of the news matter found in the three papers studied show that 49.67 per cent of the straight reading matter is included under Social Betterment news; 31.28 per cent is classed as Neutral; and 19.05 per cent as Antisocial.

2. When compared with the data derived from similar studies, the final tabulations and classifications of the present study show that the Negro press does not differ materially from the press of the country.

3. Since the reports of the United States Census Bureau, the World Almanac, and the Negro Year Book, show high percentages of illiteracy and educational mortality among Negroes, the press, together with other agencies, must supplement this meager education.

4. The question arises whether the 49.67 per cent of Social Betterment news is fully sufficient to counteract the 19.05 per cent of Antisocial news. Based upon the psychology of suggestion, the ratio 2.6:1 in favor of Social Betterment news seems to indicate that it would.

5. Although the formal education of schools is valuable, it is only a means to an end. This end is an adaptation of the individual to our complex society, and training in the ability to solve the many practical problems of life. If the Negro press aids directly or indirectly in the solution of one of these problems, its mission would not have been in vain.

SUGGESTIONS TOWARDS MEETING SOME SPECIFIC NEEDS IN THE CURRICULA OF ARTS COLLEGES

STEPHEN G. RICH

I

In an earlier article¹ it has been shown by the writer that the problems involved in curriculum making in arts colleges are fundamentally those of providing for the multifarious prevocational needs of young people who are not adequately dealt with under existing curricula. In that article it was stated that, on the basis of the fundamental understanding of the situation, two steps of work are necessary: detailed analysis of the specific needs of specific groups within the college, and experimental studies on the means for meeting these needs most effectively.

In this article it is proposed to begin such an analysis and to arrive at suggestions which may be made the basis of experimental studies. It is further proposed to carry the analysis sufficiently far to enable future experimental students to approach the detailed problems free of certain confusions that appear hitherto to have stood in the way of adequate understanding of the problems involved.

Our analyses must begin with a survey of the personnel to be served by the colleges and the services to be rendered by the colleges to this personnel. The outstanding characteristic of the college entrants, as a body, in their heterogeneity. They range between those with established purposes and those without purpose; those with fine cultural backgrounds and those with none at all; and so forth through many categories.

A certain proportion of the entrants is definitely headed for particular professions. One group, hardly recognized by college authorities, is definitely aiming to become educators. Its members mainly aim to become college teachers; but the great majority of them actually go into the high schools, where they furnish the supervisory and administrative staff, after some teaching experience, as well as the teachers. Another group is definitely headed for commercial or indus-

¹ *Journal of Educational Sociology*, I, 5, 282.

trial life. Still another aims at medicine; similar groups aim at law, the ministry, chemistry, etc.

For these groups we need, not one curriculum, but several curricula. The requirements in the way of preprofessional knowledge and training are so different for these various professions that any common curriculum is necessarily wasteful of time for all. But, in particular, a grave error will be committed if we merely lump together all commercial pursuits under the title of "commerce." Between the aspirant for managerial or executive work, the budding salesman, and the technical expert on accountancy, lie gulfs at least as great as those between the future teacher and the future medico.

In contrast to these definite-minded groups are those who have simply "come to college." Some, indeed, have general intellectual interests, and will take readily to the study of whatever subjects are well presented to them. The overwhelming majority, however, consists of young persons who simply have not yet found the vocation that attracts them. What becomes of them is perfectly well known. The men become in part high-school teachers; the remainder of them find their way into various commercial vocations, apparently mostly on the "selling end." A small portion of this group decides definitely on a profession while in college. Among the women, it would appear that teaching claims a large proportion of them for a short time; commercial life, as stenographers, appears to claim a few; but, in the main, their immediate vocations are merely stop-gaps until marriage.

With this heterogeneous mass of entrants to handle, the arts college must necessarily have many curricula. The question of a "common core" for these many curricula has been debated considerably and with much vehemence. Columbia College has its famous course in Contemporary Civilization, in which every freshman is taken upon a high hill and shown all the kingdoms of the earth. Many colleges still adhere to required composition in the freshman year and to required English literature for sophomores. The net outcome of all attempts to date is that no satisfactory common core has been found. Sociologically, it seems likely that no common core ever will be found—simply because the entrants are so hetero-

geneous, and their professional aims or lack of aim provide a further heterogeneity of conditions to be met.

Our friends, the educational psychologists, have not yet been heard from on the question of freshman composition; hence we do not know whether or not it is effective. Our friends who teach it, are, however, unanimous in agreeing that it is effective in bringing despair to the teacher: despair, fatigue, and a conviction that the freshmen have entered without even the rudiments of eighth-grade attainment in theme writing. From the viewpoint of educational sociology, with the results of freshman themes so wholly in doubt, a definite suggestion may be in order:

(1) No theme writing during the freshman year.

(2) During the sophomore year, when the half-remembered precepts of high-school teachers of composition have been forgotten, two separate semesters of work:

First semester: For those already definitely aimed at medicine, law, chemistry, and teaching, a course in "technical writing." That is, a course in writing effective reports, briefs, and the like, on such semiprofessional subjects as they already are likely to know about. This would be a beginning course in such work. For those not already decided, and for those aiming at commercial pursuits of all sorts, a course in "business English," with the business letter in its host of forms as the core of the work may well be in order.

Second semester: Separate courses for these same two groups, on technical points of good writing. This means courses in rationalized punctuation (punctuation taught so that the student sees why each item is used); rationalized grammar; and especially "effective turns of phrasing." Since the needs would not be the same for the two groups from the first semester, the groups will need separate but parallel courses.

This program is an attempt to treat theme writing as a pre-vocational or vocational subject, rather than as a phase of social communication. No teacher will be able to prevent the social communication element, without reference to vocation, from creeping in; hence we need not fear the loss of part of the incidental service of the college.

Sociologically and psychologically, such a sophomore program of composition has much to commend it. It comes after the students have had time to become adjusted to college, and when they have forgotten the pride in passing the entrance requirements in English. It comes when an increased number have attained definite vocational aims, and when all have far more to write about than has a freshman just transplanted from high school. It supplies both a need and a need that is conscious.

Our sociological point of view may further be applied in order to discover possibilities for the freshman year in place of the not-lamented freshman theme course. Since the freshmen are a newly transplanted group, cut loose from old attachments to some degree, and forming new ones very markedly, there is a legitimate field for the English department to use advantageously. This is an occasion upon which *extensive* reading, of varied nature, is in order. Doubtless some will here expect a suggestion for a course in "contemporary literature." That is exactly what the sociological point of view leads us to discard. Likewise, we must discard the traditional course in English literature, beginning with the Venerable Bede and ending with Tennyson, or that in American literature beginning with John Smith or Cotton Mather. Any chronological course, involving much acquiring of information about the history of literature, is entirely irrelevant to the social situation of the freshman group. The suggestion is made that a course should be offered in which each student should be got to read a dozen to fifteen books, none of which are used directly or for reference in any other course which he is taking. It seems sociologically sound to allow half these books to be in any one field except fiction, and to insist that the other half be scattered through as many fields as possible, including perhaps one standard novel and a collection of accepted short stories. For example, a prospective teacher of biological sciences might choose Huxley's *The Crayfish* (a model of beautiful English style), J. Arthur Thomson's *The Biology of the Seasons*, Dr. Herter's *Biological Aspects of Human Problems*, and three other biological books of equal stylistic merit; these form the field of major

interest. Beyond these he might read one of O. W. Holmes's "medicated" novels, which are fiction but with a biological twist; a volume of Kipling's verse; Herbert Spencer's *Education*; some classic of chemistry; and certainly some philosophical work not too heavy.

The men directing such courses would need to be widely informed on the stylistic merits of the works in various fields, and would need to be able to direct students to the desirable reading. What type of reports on reading—if any—and how the course should be conducted are purely technical problems not here in point.²

Personally, the writer would go further, and allow a freshman interested in modern drama to take that as a major field for reading; or would allow one who cared for modern poetry to read in that field as part of the course. The purpose of the course is essentially to form the habit of reading extensively, both in the field of main interests and elsewhere. This is directly in line with the professional purpose and incidental other purposes of the arts college. With the instructing staff guiding as to choice of books stylistically good, an appreciation of good language may be started.

II

In the preceding section we have applied the methods of educational sociology to the problem of the English curriculum for the first two years of college. A similar application, with probably similar unorthodox recommendations, could be made in other fields; but it is too lengthy a task to be done within the confines of this article. Therefore various suggestions which have come into the writer's mind from this point of view must suffice as stepping-stones to further problems.

Sociologically, it is probably professionally useful in almost every line to acquire a reading knowledge, and only a reading knowledge, but a good reading knowledge, of some language which is extensively relevant. The chemist, of course, can use German; probably the future merchant will find more use for that language than for any other; the teacher of any lit-

² The writer is indebted to Mr. H. S. Robinson for the suggestion to have freshman reading and sophomore composition.

erary subject will find French most valuable; and so forth. Intensive courses, aiming solely at *the ability to read the languages fluently and without distress*, might well be offered in some three or four languages of vocational use, and freshmen expected to take one of these. The unfortunate ones who came to college without the language they need could have a two years' intensive course leading to this same goal. A course in mathematical analysis, such as is now offered in a number of colleges, applying mathematical methods to prevocational interests of various sorts, and required for some students but elective for others, would seem justified. Certainly those who need further mathematics for vocational use will be advantageously affected by this course, bridging the gap from high-school algebra and geometry to all advanced mathematics. The writer is entirely at sea as to desirable work in the social sciences; but the complexity of any save history probably renders it advantageous to postpone them into the junior and senior years.

Not strictly sociological, yet social in its implications of avoiding waste, is the following general suggestion. Such courses as freshman chemistry, which would certainly be retained for future chemists, science teachers, etc., under any scheme, could be improved markedly by classifying the students on a new basis. Instead of having "beginning" and "advanced" groups on the basis of whether the pupils had or had not high-school work (entrance credit) in the subject, give some good test of achievement at the start of the year, and section on the basis of those test results.

III

The prevocational purpose in arts-college educations renders necessary a sociological reclassification of the courses given, cutting across departmental and subject lines. A convenient place to begin this is in considering the work of the customary departments of English and of public speaking. The department of English, in well-developed colleges, offers a group of courses dealing with the technique and practice of writing English; these are often further divided into a small group on the theory of using the language and a larger one on

the practice thereof. Opposed to these are a series of courses in which sections of the literature are intensively or extensively read. Nearly every college has a further course, a history of English literature. The department of public speaking will usually offer courses in the practice of using English orally; in content these may overlap some from the department of English.

From the point of view of the type of vocation served, these courses need to be considered in four groups:

(1) Those that contribute primarily towards expression or social communication; the composition and rhetoric courses and those in public speaking.

(2) Those that contribute towards knowledge of English literature.

(3) Those that are a branch of history.

(4) Those that belong to the science of linguistics.

The courses in group 1 will include some that are of direct professional use in many different lines, and many that are really of comparatively little professional use to the teacher of English literature. When, therefore, we consider curriculum making for the approaches to the various professions, we must classify these entirely separately and consider them in a different relation from what we do with the courses in the other groups. Group 3, which usually means two courses on the history of English and American literatures, must be considered as belonging essentially to the histories of those nations, and relevant to whatever vocations there are that utilize history as part of their informational basis. No explanation is needed for groups 2 and 4.

A step beyond this point in our analysis lies in applying this division to courses given by other departments. The department of French in a certain college, not very large, now gives courses that would fall into the same four groups, although groups 3 and 4 have only one course each. For sociological consideration, the English and the French courses in group 4 belong together, as contributing towards the same professional purpose. In a similar way we may allot the courses in various languages into their sociological groups.

A different classification, but similar in methods and purposes, applies to physics and mathematics. Actually, much work in physics in the colleges is really a branch of mathematical activity. Certain mathematical activities, such as statistics, belong within the fields of biology, education, and economics, rather than in the central physics-mathematics unit. Two colleges are now giving courses in the history of mathematics, in the mathematics department; but their usefulness is at least in large part in the department of history.

We have, again, in the fields of social sciences, a still different division of purposes. The course in American Government, often given as a senior course, is essentially a vocational course, aiming to orient the citizen, and contributing directly to his vocational efficiency because of the understanding it gives him of the means of social control that act upon him and on which he may act. Also, it recapitulates and makes clear what civic training has been had and forgotten in the lower schools—provided it is well taught. The first part of this statement applies with perhaps equal force to economics in its first course; and the strictly vocational applicability of certain advanced courses in economics is too obvious for future merchants to need more than mention. Certain of the advanced courses in political science are again of limited and special usefulness. In economics, the same holds true.

All this analysis leads us to the result of stating that for curriculum making in colleges the type of training and point of view of the courses considered, rather than their names, must guide us. We have no justification for saying that some one vocation "requires English"; we may with propriety say that it "calls for training in social communication" when courses leading that way, from whatever department taken, are relevant. Likewise, we may say that a future teacher of high-school history might have little occasion to take certain courses given under the label of "history," but would probably be professionally benefited by those labeled "History of Education," "History of French Literature," "History of Arithmetic," and the like.

We can, therefore, make our various curricula in the arts college, with a considerable degree of accurate direction of

effort, by considering the courses on the basis of the type of training and information that they give. We shall, of course, find certain courses that provide training or information contributory to many different types of profession. It is highly probable that economics and government, in at least the introductory courses, will be professional and useful for nearly all purposes. The differentiation of early courses for training in the definite preprofessional needs of the various types of vocations, as occurring in the fields of communication and of knowledge of literature, has been treated in detail in the preceding section.

In the premedical course, where the known requirements of medical colleges for admission, based upon what is probably the best sociological survey of requirements as yet made anywhere in the field of higher education, set the standard and fill up all the available teaching hours in college. In the other professions, the preprofessional or early professional studies do not as yet fill up the whole time of the college student. Here, in using "free electives" and in touching upon various fields, points of view, and purposes, the college can do its accessory work and furnish what the defenders of particular subjects as essential for all call "culture." Further recognition must be made of the fact that occasionally subjects must be taken in order to qualify for the official licenses to practice the profession, regardless of their actual relevance to professional work. A type specimen of this is the requirement of history of education for teachers' certificates. For the teacher of history it is a useful part of his professional work; but it has not yet been shown to do any positive work for teachers in other subjects.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF EQUAL PAY FOR MEN AND WOMEN IN TEACHING

HERBERT A. TONNE

In recent years there has been quite some discussion in regard to the equalization of pay for men and women teachers of the same rank. Burgess in his *Trends of School Costs* has incidentally given us some very enlightening material on the situation for the past seventy-five years. In comparing the average salaries of men teachers in cities, women teachers in cities, men teachers in rural sections, and women teachers in rural sections from 1841 to 1920, he found that "the salaries of city men teachers started at a level nearly five times as high as any of the other groups. The salaries of city women teachers started lower than those of men in rural schools, but passed the men in the course of a very few years and continued to gain thereafter more rapidly. The trend for rural women teachers is considerably below all the others.

. . . The final salaries of men is only about three times their initial salary, while the general level of the salaries of country women teachers at the close of eighty years is about eight times the early figure."¹

In summing up his discussion of the subject Burgess finds that "In similar communities men have been paid more than women teachers. . . . The salaries of women teachers have been gaining on those of men teachers. . . . Women country teachers have had the largest percentage increase in salary, and city men teachers the smallest."²

Men teachers have, therefore, relatively been gradually placed at a considerable disadvantage in comparison with their position in earlier days. This, too, in spite of the fact that in the Civil War period many more of the men were teaching in the elementary schools while now by far the larger majority teach in high schools. As might be expected in the light of this situation the "percentage of men teachers in the schools of the country has fallen from 43 per cent in 1880 to 16 per cent in 1918."³

¹ W. Randolph Burgess, *Trends of School Costs*, Department of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1920, p. 40.

² *Ibid.*, p. 45.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

How can we account for these facts? No doubt one of the major factors in causing this tendency toward equalization is the comparatively greater preparation received by women for teaching in recent years. Though there is quite some difference of opinion as to the causes for prices (and we are here considering the price of teaching) it is generally agreed that cost is a major factor in deciding price. It is quite logical then that there should be a proportionately greater price paid for the services of women teachers, if their training relative to the training of men is also greater than the training of men.

Another powerful influencing factor no doubt is the far greater opportunity now open for women in industry. The school has always been in competition with commerce and industry for the services of men. In the period before the Civil War and possibly to a lesser extent after that, commercial work was practically closed for certain types of women. Those therefore who were compelled to find gainful employment were forced into teaching. This gave such a large supply of material for teaching as compared to the demand that there naturally was a very low wage level for women teachers.

The doctrine of equal rights which has gradually been developing in our social philosophies also has probably been a strong element in causing a tendency toward more equal pay for equal work. Woman suffrage, women on school committees, and on boards of education, the achievements of women in science and in literature have all been influential in creating an attitude of fair play. This has manifested itself, of course, more strongly in those fields where women always have been important, such as teaching.

Before going on to a more detailed discussion of the situation as it is at present let us consider the arguments generally offered on both sides of the question. The usual argument offered by those who favor a higher salary for men regardless of the type of work performed is that men usually will require a higher economic stipend because they normally have or at any rate will have a family to support. Those opposed to this position can point out, of course, that some women also have dependents for whom they might also demand a greater wage. This does not, however, take away from the

general import of the argument. From one point of view, and the traditional one at that, the man is justified in receiving a higher wage in order to make possible the maintenance of a family. Several European countries have made provision for this situation and give extra percentages to state employees for the support of their families. Upon casual study, these extra amounts appear to be more or less equal to the larger wages usually received by men in teaching, but a scientific study of this would be very enlightening.

The opponents to this attitude will not and possibly cannot because of their economic situation see the partial justice of the previous argument. The cry is that of equal pay for equal services. Certainly every fair-minded person agrees to that slogan as it stands. In industry there is no question as to whether a person has only himself or a family of a dozen. The almost universal tendency is to give the same pay for equal services, other things, that is, supply and demand, being constant.

This latter viewpoint seems to be making the most headway by far. Many of the larger cities, among them those having the highest salary schedules, give equal pay to men and women of equal rank, training, and experience. Some of the states have even required equal salary schedules for men and women. One state put through legislation to the effect that in all future salary schedules made and in future changes of salary schedules for teachers there must be provision made for equalization. Thereby very much needed pay increases are being held up in some cities because it is felt that to raise the salaries of women to those of men, and then put through a general raise would be too much for the tax payers to tolerate at one time.

Corollary to this new legislation, though not directly within the scope of the present discussion, is the tendency of these more progressive cities to lift the ban upon teaching by married women. Until very recently it was the almost universal rule that married women would not be employed as teachers. In many of the more conservative communities of the country this ruling is still enforced. It is still only the rare university or college which will permit a woman member on its staff whose husband is a fellow member of the faculty.

The tendency toward salary equalization has come not without much protest, of course, from those concerned. The following, issued by the *Schoolmen of Kansas City* is typical:

"Equal pay for equal service" is the slogan of women teachers in high schools who contend that the board of education discriminates against them because of their sex. By implication they demand a proportionate representation of schedule and in administrative positions.

The ultimate result of the adoption of such a policy is the domination of secondary-school education by women and a further reduction of the already inadequate number of young men who choose teaching as a life work.⁴

It will be noticed that the schoolmen not only demand a differential salary schedule, but also admit that more of the administrative positions go to men. This is probably true even in communities where there has been an equalization in pay. Men still have somewhat the advantage in that other things being equal higher positions more often go to men than to women even though they are far fewer in number on the teaching staffs than women.

Be the arguments and biases what they may be, the fact is that by and large the services of teachers as well as those of other workers are determined by supply and demand. And moreover this supply and demand works not only in the profession itself, but exists also between teaching and other types of work. Thus if the demand for teachers in general is low and the supply high, the wages for teachers in the long run will tend to be lowered. At the same time other types of work will be in competition with teaching for the services of men and women, and as the salaries of teaching become lower, more and more individuals will go into other paths of endeavor where the demand for their services is higher. There is a final factor still to be considered and that is the type of services obtained for various scales of services. Over extended periods of time if wages in a given profession are reduced, the supply of workers may still remain high but the type of person going into this form of work will tend to be of a distinctly lower quality. This is true also in teaching. If the wages of teachers go up in comparison to those of other workers a higher type of person will go into teaching. If

⁴ "Equal Pay for Equal Services," *School and Society*, 22, 596-7, November 7, 1925.

the wages of teachers go down comparatively there will be a gradual weakening in the caliber of the profession.

Whatever the cause or causes may be, whether it be mere tradition and convention, greater ability, or pure competition with other types of work, men teachers of ability equal to that of a given level of women teachers command a higher salary than women teachers do. The tendency to make the wages of women more equal to those of men in the last fifty years has to a great extent depleted the school systems of their men teaching forces. In regard to the relative quality of men teachers at present and men teachers in the past, and the quality of men teachers and of women teachers at present no definite study has been made. The implication seems clear, however. The fact is, then, that if we wish to have a fair proportion of men in our school systems of a type equal to that of the women in our schools, we must at present and probably will have to for some time to come pay our men teachers higher salaries than our women teachers.

We may, of course, reconcile ourselves to the gradual feminization of our school systems or the weakening of the caliber of our men teachers or both. The limits of the present discussion do not allow an extended inquiry into the possible desirableness of such a condition. Let us, however, to be brief, use the Kantian scheme of extending the condition universally, though admittedly this method of drawing conclusions is not without its weaknesses. Suppose that our school system became universally manned by women. Let us presume our entire public-school system in command of women with a few low-typed men for certain types of work, where they were necessary! Probably even the most ardent advocate of equal pay for equal work will recoil from such a position. The situation is well summed up by Walter R. Smith:

This progressive feminization has led to a number of weaknesses in our educational systems, as compared with those of other nations and ages, but we are concerned here only with its effect upon professionalization. In every line of professional advance the enormous preponderance of women teachers is a hindrance. In the first place, many of them are unwilling to undergo the amount of technical preparation necessary for real professional work. Such unwillingness comes, not from lesser ambition or ability, but from the very nature of the social position in which

woman finds herself at this age. She expects and is expected to marry and become a homemaker, which she usually does, thus rendering any extended technical preparation for teaching unprofitable. In the second place, women can accept smaller pay than is necessary to attract men into the profession. . . . Altogether, without the least insinuation against the motives of women in entering teaching, or minimizing in the remotest degree the vast contribution they have made, and are making to educational advancement, it may be stated as a fundamental fact that teaching can never become a profession with the social standing and rewards of the other professions until the number of men engaged in it is approximately as large as the number of women.⁵

The situation is then, that though there has been a general tendency in our economic system as a whole to equalize the salaries for men and women for equal types of work, there has been a much more rapid tendency toward this condition in the teaching profession. This has had a derogatory effect on the profession because in view of the disadvantageous position of men in the field they have tended to go into other fields of work where there is far less of a tendency toward pay equalization.

As our social and especially the marital and family relations between men and women take on the aspects of the type of civilization we are evidently headed for, there will be more and more of a tendency for women to receive salaries as high as those of men, until when the process of transition has been completed they will have reached a uniform basis. This process of transition is taking place very slowly in comparison to the lifetimes of individuals and will probably continue to go on slowly. To the extent to which our entire economic system goes in this direction teaching salaries also should and will tend to the same conclusion. For the teaching profession to attempt to act too much in the rôle of a telic example of our changing social relationships will, however, have a harmful influence directly upon the character of our teaching personnel and thereby upon society as a whole. The conclusion of this discussion then is that whatever the general scale of teachers' salaries as a whole is, there should be such a differential in the salaries of men and women as will maintain approximately an equal number of both sexes of like character and training in the teaching profession.

⁵ Walter Robinson Smith, *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1917.

INQUIRY

1. In specific terms just what is meant by education?

The answer to this question will undoubtedly provoke much disagreement. There is, however, need for an attempt to forsake the many abstractions which have been philosophically utilized in defining education. It would seem that the results of education can be summarized in terms of life plus those achievements which give social as well as individual satisfaction. What else can education accomplish?

The products of education seem to be realized only through an adequate adaptation to environment both material and social. This adaptation is necessarily a continuous process because of constantly changing conditions of living. The term "adaptation" as here used signifies a relative accomplishment whereby health can be maintained on the highest efficiency level. This necessarily infers the avoidance of disease, and accident prevention. One, therefore, through education learns how to live up to his maximum capacity.

By education, then, one becomes able to maintain health according to the degree of his adaptation; and through health physically, mentally, occupationally and in the home and community, all other objectives are realized. Through education individuals and groups (1) are properly fed; (2) are provided with proper shelter, clothing, and sanitation; (3) acquire suitable living habits and practices; (4) learn to improve their environment, and coöperate rather than clash with it; (5) become immunized as far as possible against disease; and (6) give greater attention to physical needs. All the objectives of education as usually listed seem to be attained in the realization of these six achievements.

2. What Type Activities Reflect Changing Conceptions of Education?

Experimentation. Perhaps one of the signs most indicative of change and growth in educational policies is the rapidly changing attitude favorable to experimentation. Often an entire school is placed on an experimental basis. Individual

classes or groups are organized in many school systems for the purpose of weighing the old and new practices and of determining their relative educational value in education for today.

Course of Study. A second activity giving evidence of educational advancement has been the almost universal attitude for curriculum reconstruction. Every compartment of the curriculum is undergoing change. The writing of a course of study was considered as an achievement useful at least over a period of years. Today it is an instrument in education constantly in the process of modification and growth. Much material has been dropped as entirely useless in educational attainment. On the other hand much new subject matter is being selected in place of the old. Subject matter, such as in handwriting, is being entirely remodeled. Educators everywhere are thinking in terms of the effect of subject matter on the individual. They insist that content should increase efficiency—physical, cultural, civic, æsthetic, occupational, moral, and religious.

School and Class Organization and Management. A third activity reflects the conception of the school apart from subject matter as a socializing factor in education. The building and its equipment suggest the function for which the school as a whole is organized. Typically school facilities may suggest that the school is to serve the community only as a means of an economic assimilation of traditions, or it may suggest the apparent need for the development of new social patterns and for social production. Modern educational activities emphasize a due recognition of individual differences to the end that each and every child may be equitably adapted to his physical and social environment. The serious handicap to rational educational adaptation, economically considered, is the need for research particularly in the field of school and class organization in order to avoid many of the trial and error activities now being utilized. We need to know precisely what school and class organization serves best the function of the school today.

Teaching Methods. Probably no phase of school work is being revolutionized or changed more than that of method.

This is as it should be if the school is to be life and aim to improve life rather than serve as a preparation for life. The teacher in order to adapt methods adequately needs above all to appreciate life and its needs now and anticipate the new problems which the child is likely to face in future years. The newer methods are making possible the acquisition of real experience in the classroom and for the adaptation of the child in his various social relationships. They are teaching the child how to play and how to achieve.

Health and Safety Education. The felt need for education in health and safety has been a potent factor in changing not only content, organization, and method in education, but in causing educators to proceed on the assumption that education means a development of proper habits, practices, attitudes, and ideals. Health and safety education does not involve the introduction of a new subject. Health is not a subject; it is an ideal to which all subjects and activities should contribute.

Measurement. The newer conceptions of education are revealed by the changing attitudes toward measurement in education. The psychological movement has given us an excellent technique for educational measurement. Now we are interested in applying this technique to the end that it may be determined just how our conventional school subjects, our school and class organization, and our methods do affect individual and social behavior. Activities in measurement just for a time at least may be confined to a study of these problems.

Additional Activities. Other miscellaneous activities have developed through the feeling of social need. Special classes and schools are being organized for the physically and mentally handicapped and for the mentally superior; we have vocational guidance and vocational education; trade schools are established; and we aim to promote better home-school relationships, better coöperation, and to advance the movement for thrift education.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest in educational sociology and (2) ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.*

A New Research Manual for the Study of Local Groups and Communities

*Field Studies in Sociology: A Student's Manual*¹ is the name of a new book by Vivian M. Palmer, Supervisor, Local Community Research, University of Chicago, which is soon to be forthcoming. This volume is the result of four years of experimentation in the Social Research Laboratory of the University of Chicago. It contains three parts: Part One is a discussion of sociology as a science; of the methods of sociological research (case-study method, historical method, and statistical method); and of the basic theoretical assumptions of sociology which are selected as a basis for study.

Part Two presents three outlines of type studies: the type study of a territorial group; the type study of an interest group; and the type study of an accommodation group. Each of these type studies contains a set of problem sheets, keyed to all the introductory texts in sociology, and to Part Three of the volume which deals with techniques of investigation. The type studies have been developed through students' concrete study of hundreds of cases of each kind of group.

The third part presents a discussion of objectives and practice of techniques of investigation: observation, interview, map making, diary recording, documentation, and case analysis.

There is an appendix in which examples of students' studies, maps, and forms used in research are presented.

The volume is designated as an introductory manual for sociological research, to function much as a laboratory manual does in physics or chemistry, and should be used as the text for a course in investigation to follow the introductory course in sociology. Its chief value lies in the fact that it has grown

¹ To be published by the University of Chicago Press about the middle of October, 1928.

out of the pooling of the experiences of over a thousand undergraduate and graduate students and twenty-five staff and research assistants who have directed their work. The students under supervision have been given individual attention, and a careful study made of their problem in making the field studies.

A New "Case Book" on Scientific Methods in Social Science.

Another publication to which sociologists are looking forward with great interest is the new volume now in preparation which will be an exhibit of methods actually used in making outstanding contributions in the field of social science.

From sixty to eighty inductive analyses of the methods employed by the authors of outstanding contributions to social science are being assembled for the so-called "case book" projected by the Committee on Scientific Method of the Social Science Research Council. Each of these is being prepared by a competent scholar who has specialized in the field of inquiry represented. The committee consists of:

Walter W. Cook of Yale University
A. N. Holcombe of Harvard University
W. I. King of New York University
Edward Sapir of the University of Chicago
Horace Secrist of Northwestern University
Frederick J. Teggert of the University of California
L. L. Thurstone of the University of Chicago
Mary van Kleeck of the Russell Sage Foundation
Robert M. MacIver of Columbia University, Chairman

Stuart A. Rice of the University of Pennsylvania is in the committee's service as investigator, and during a portion of the year has been associated with Harold D. Lasswell of the University of Chicago as co-investigator.

Research Conference of the Religious Education Association.

On September 14, 15, and 16, the Research Committee of the Religious Education Association was host to a conference of research workers who are engaged upon the problems bearing upon character formation. The meeting was held at the Chicago Theological Seminary which granted the use of its facilities for the conference.

The Research Committee of the Religious Education Association was organized two years ago to coördinate and promote research in religious and character education. It has

made a survey of the research work now being done in the immediate field and has provided a day for reports on research in connection with the annual convention of the Religious Education Association.

The conference was limited to twenty-five research workers carefully selected as representing different fields. Among those present were: E. L. Thorndyke, Ellsworth Faris, Arthur E. Holt, chairman of the committee, J. M. Artman, W. C. Bower, Ruth S. Cavan, Galen M. Fisher, Hugh Harts-horne, Mark A. May, Edwin B. Starbuck, A. L. Swift, Goodwin B. Watson, John J. B. Morgan, and Frederic M. Thrasher. The fields of psychology and education, psychiatry, religion, religious education, sociology, and survey methods were represented.

The conference was called because the Committee felt that a very great need exists for a more coöperative attack upon "character process" in the various related fields of research and by various techniques. It was fundamentally a discussion which resulted in the trading of experiences and the debating of methods and the various members presented pertinent and concrete researches which they had under way or had completed. The conference was guided by a steering committee, which used as a basis for its work statements of the problems which those attending considered relative and the points which they considered valuable for debate.

Among the expected outcomes of the conference are more complete fellowship between the workers in related fields of research affecting character and behavior problems; a determination of points for research workers urgently needed and some suggestions for furthering it; an estimate by the group as to the value of such a conference as an annual event; and finally the formulation of plans for future meetings. The definite outcomes of the conference will be more fully reported in a later issue of *THE JOURNAL*.

The Journal of Juvenile Research

Beginning with the fall number for 1928, the *Journal of Delinquency* published by the Department of Research of the Whittier State School, Whittier, California, will be known as the *Journal of Juvenile Research* to put it in line with modern attitudes toward the socially maladjusted child.

BOOK REVIEWS

Safety Education in the Vocational School, by MAX S. HENIG. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1928, vi + 110 pages.

This publication is devoted entirely to safety education in the vocational school and suggests in detail how instruction should be divided between the shop and the classroom in order to reduce the number of accidents not only during the vocational course, but during the vocational lives of the students. This study in safety education contributes to all phases of educational work and applies with equal force to the necessary reconstruction of the curriculum in general education. "The objective of the study was to construct a curriculum for use in the academic department that would produce, as a primary result, a substantial reduction of the hazards and the mishaps, . . . that would encourage the formation of habits, the acquisition of knowledges, and the development of attitudes and ideals which would function to keep the school's graduates safe while engaged in the industries for which they have been fitted," and to enable them to further the progress of the industrial safety movement. This should be the objective of every school curriculum; and a curriculum can be justified only to the extent that it does actually perform these functions and develops abilities to survive and to live more happily and efficiently.

Dr. Henig demonstrates (1) that the great majority of industrial and vocational school accidents are avoidable through education; (2) that individuals can be trained to become safe workers; (3) that instruction can provide for immediate and future needs, and can impart those knowledges, skills, habits, and attitudes that will make for safe workers; (5) that the school can function to prepare the student as a result of instruction in accident prevention, to take his place in industry able to discover and avoid its hazards, willing and also able to cooperate with and further the movement for industrial safety as he meets it; and (6) that instruction of this character should be offered both in the classroom and on the job.

This curriculum, embodying as it does the fundamental principles of dynamic education, is adaptable to all school situations. It illustrates the true function of the school, the only institution by virtue of its relation to the whole community which can carry out a program that will function in the establishment of safety habits and practices. The principles embodied in this study are applicable to all phases of education, not only in the closely allied field of education in health, but to every subject and to every activity of the school curriculum.

IRA M. GAST

Immigration Restriction, by ROY L. GARIS. New York: Macmillan Company, 1927, xv + 376 pages.

Particularly timely for the student of immigration and related problems is the recent volume on *Immigration Restriction* by Professor Roy L. Garis. The purpose of the book is to portray the history of immigration from the standpoint of regulation and restriction and quite naturally deals in large

part with the growth and force of public opinion on the subject, the culmination of which is apparent in the drastic regulation of today. Although admittedly a firm believer in restriction the author treats his subject from a thoroughly impartial viewpoint, not attempting to weigh the merits or demerits of restriction *vs.* nonrestriction so much as to portray the grounds on which the arguments of those advocating such policies rest.

Of special note is the evidence presented to show that the threads of opposition to immigration trace directly back to early colonial days. Indeed, the very immigrant stock which is now favored was in those early times the butt of vigorous attacks and discriminations. The Dutch, Scandinavians, Swiss, French, and later the Germans and Irish were alike unwanted despite the fact that the crying need of the young nation was manpower to develop its resources. George Washington expressed himself forcefully on the question: "I have no intention to invite immigrants, even if there are no restrictive acts against it. I am opposed to it altogether." John Adams and Benjamin Franklin held similar views and Thomas Jefferson, particularly hostile to immigration, queried "whether it is desirable for us to receive the dissolute and demoralized handicraftsmen of the old cities of Europe."

Although rather technical in nature *Immigration Restriction* will indeed prove a valuable reference work for the student interested in immigration and its control.

EARL E. MUNTZ

Folk Beliefs of the Southern Negro, by N. N. PUCKETT.
Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1926,
xiv + 644 pages.

Intensely interesting to the lay reader, and at the same time a most thorough piece of research dealing with the folk thought and beliefs of a significant portion of our population, is the best way to describe Professor N. N. Puckett's *Folk Beliefs of the Southern Negro*. Dr. Puckett lays a solid foundation for this work by a critical study of the practical and emotional background of the American Negro. The colored man brought to America a galaxy of primitive notions and beliefs which were soon to fuse with many derived directly from the white man's culture of a century or more ago.

During slave days voodooism and conjuration were on the decline and it is possible that this relic of African life would have ultimately died out of its own accord. The slave was a valuable piece of property, and health meant greater value. Therefore the master protected the slave against disease germs and bodily injuries—there was no place for magical cures in the system. But after the Civil War when the treatment of disease was again given to the Negroes they focused their attention on the all powerful "root doctor" or "hoodoo man" as the healer of diseases. The Negroes have a very real belief in fetishism, and place the greatest faith in these professional trick doctors who abound to this day in Virginia, Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and elsewhere in the South as well as in the northern cities. The credulity of the rank and file is so great that it is extremely

hard to get a Negro to testify in court against a "hoodoo doctor" no matter how much he has been swindled.

There is an excellent treatment of Negro folk medicine through positive control signs and cures, as well as negative control signs or taboos. Dr. Puckett calls attention, however, to the fact that the most widespread beliefs among the American Negroes today seem to be those which formerly had a wide distribution in Europe or in Africa. The male clings to the old African forms, probably because of the greater fear and respect which they command, his desire to be spectacular, and also by reason of his relative lack of contact with European lore. Negro women were brought into contact with Anglo-Saxon women and beliefs were spread from the susceptible to the susceptible while the Negro man was associated more with the white man where neither pupil nor teacher was as much given to superstitious thought. Thus it is that the Negress in her constant association with children has become the principal custodian and sower of false generalizations.

"Religion among the Southern Negroes," says the author, "is so full of what the whites call superstition that it would be impossible to disentangle the two did we not have our present concept of Christianity as a standard." It is of great value to note the exact nature of this intermingling of African beliefs, European folklore and Christianity, together with some unique interpretations which the Negroes themselves have developed in America.

Sociologist and educator alike must owe a lasting debt of gratitude to Dr. Puckett for this timely and scholarly volume on the folk beliefs of the American Negro.

EARL E. MUNTZ

The Folk High Schools of Denmark and the Development of a Farming Community, by HOLGER BEGRUP, HANS LUND and PETER MAMICHE, with an introduction by Sir Michael Sadler. Oxford University Press, 1926. 158 pages.

In America, nearly every native-born adult has been promoted step by step through a graded elementary school. If he continued his education further, he was promoted unit by unit through the high school. If he went on to college, he completed his freshman prescriptions before he could be rated as a sophomore. It is almost impossible for us to face frankly and open-mindedly the likelihood that one who should plunge into an education at eighteen or twenty years of age with no previous school learning except a brief elementary training in childhood might be far more effectively educated in five or ten months than many, perhaps most, of our college graduates.

When we read that such an education is gained without examinations, without textbooks or notebooks, without any of the solemn academic nonsense with which we surround our schools and colleges, then we feel that all our vested interests in promotions and marks and degrees and graduations are challenged. Naturally we are inclined to be indignant. "If the stories that these three men tell is true," we say, "then what comes of our

carefully formulated 'scientifically' evaluated courses of study? What comes of our standardized and new type tests? What comes of our skills? What comes of our statistical surveys and our doctors' dissertations? What comes of this job which the reviewer holds—'professor of secondary education'?"

It seems that Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig had that absurdly profound faith in the masses which seems to characterize such unconventional non-academic spirits as Jesus and Pestalozzi and Lincoln and Jefferson. He thought that even young adult peasants who could scarcely read and write must have had, nevertheless, an urge to seek answers for the questions which life raised in their hearts—questions of destiny, of vocation, of sex, of their relations to the age in which they lived. So he urged that an institution be organized for the young adults of the whole Danish people, in which their questions could be answered by themselves under the guidance of wise adults, in which they could experience freedom, in which the spirit of Pestalozzian humanitarianism might be supreme, in which the youth might come to feel their Danish heritage of song and lore and tradition, and in which a science in close touch with their lives should illuminate them. He waited long, from 1829 till 1844, before the first Folk High School was opened.

Then in 1849, during the Danish-German War for the possession of Schleswig, came constitutional government and with it there took shape a definite nationalistic impulse. Directly after the war, Christen Kold opened the first successful Folk High School at Ryslinge. As an outcome of the disastrous war of 1864 and of the disruption of Danish agriculture due to the falling price of grain, the number of such schools increased rapidly; they developed as the best remedy for the regeneration of the Danish people.

How Kold gave the Grundtvigian schools their spiritual form; how he awakened the inner life of his pupils; how he influenced the practical life of his community though he never spoke about practical or technical matters; how he *enlivened* the young people rather than *enlightened* them and so stimulated them to a life of self-enlightenment—it was an astounding achievement. How Schroeder, his wife, and his colleagues at Askov Folk High School, and how the others who started their schools after 1864 carried the work forward—here is the profoundest educational development of the modern world. To comprehend its significance the book under review must be read and pondered. And when this has been done, the reader should follow it with Hart's *Light from the North*, with Knight's *Among the Danes*. The reviewer can only assert his belief that such an educational philosophy and practice as these leaders have developed for the young adults of Denmark is equally sound for all human beings of all ages everywhere.

PHILIP W. L. COX

Mental Hygiene, by DANIEL WOLFORD LA RUE. The Macmillan Company, 1927, 443 pages.

Mental Hygiene is the title of a very practical book written by one of the most successful teachers of psychology. The author's purpose in writing

the book was to convey to others those facts and principles about mental health which have been carefully tested in the course of several years' study and teaching of mental hygiene. While admitting that many inherited traits predispose the individual toward mental health or disease, the author emphasizes the fact that mental disease and health are something which, within limits, can be practised and learned.

The superior individual or teacher is one who has developed a fine, strong, hygienic personality. The author presents the problems of mental hygiene as related to vocation, recreation, love, life, and to social adjustments in general.

The contents include discussions of the forces that determine personality, inheritance and development of traits, the mental hygiene of adult life, and the mental hygiene of childhood and adolescence.

Many parts of the book are quite elementary; other parts could only be understood if the student had a good grounding in psychology and biology. The body-mind discussion is somewhat confusing, if not misleading. Terms like "bio-mental" and "phreno-mental" are not likely to add to clarity.

The inferences drawn from the study of famous and infamous families are open to question. In the Edwards family, as in the Kallikak family, there may be traced two lines of descendants of one Elizabeth Tuttle, whose personal record, as well as that of her brothers, points to gross immorality and serious maladjustment. "the stream is like its source" is not quite clear. Moreover, McDougall's classification of instincts, which is quoted in this volume, does not seem to meet with general approval among psychologists.

The author raises once more the old question as to which, if either, is the more important, heredity or environment. From the discussion, it is difficult to predict what a student's conclusion would be. It would seem more profitable to the reviewer if the point was made that heredity and environment are complementary and that the question of their relative importance is unanswerable as it is stated.

Statements like "mind can cause bodily illness" and "mind can cure bodily illness," while true in a common-sense way, are scientifically untrue and misleading. Body processes, involving mental processes, may influence other body processes for good or ill, but mental processes (mind) are not something apart from body processes. Mind from a metaphysical standpoint may be quite another matter.

On the whole, the book is well written, practical, and sane. It should be read by teachers, ministers, nurses, physicians, and discussed in parent-teacher meetings.

Just what effect the study of mental hygiene books and articles will have upon adolescent and adult individuals possessing a nervous constitution is open to conjecture. Except in a small percentage of individual cases, its possibilities for improving human poise, happiness, and efficiency are probably tremendous.

CHARLES EDWARD SKINNER

Child Guidance, by SMILEY BLANTON and MARGARET GRAY BLANTON. New York: Century Company, 1927, xviii + 301 pages.

Child Guidance will prove of great interest to those who are working with children in the nursery school or in the primary grades of the elementary school. It deals with the management of the conduct of the normal child during the early years of life. The first chapter deals with original nature. Then follows a group of chapters on early habits—learning to walk, to talk, to eat, to sleep, and to control the excretory functions. A second group of chapters deals with the management of the nursery and the child's daily regimen, sensory training, discipline, initiation into the mysteries of birth, sex, and death, learning to adjust to the group, intelligence and nervousness. A third group of chapters deals in some detail with socialization and the formation of personality traits. The book is of a highly practical nature, full of suggestions as to how to handle the child in specific situations. It is based on a wide experience with children, the Blantons having been connected for a number of years with the Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic, of which Smiley Blanton was director. It is unique in the literature of child guidance for its appreciation of the importance of group relationships and experiences, as over against original nature traits, in fashioning the child's attitudes and personality.

H. W. Z.

Psychological Care of Infant and Child, by JOHN B. WATSON. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1928, 195 pages.

In writing the *Psychological Care of Infant and Child*, John Watson turns from his laboratory, and his more recent attempts at popularizing psychology, to offer advice to those who deal, as parents or teachers, with the formative years of childhood. This advice grows out of his now celebrated Johns Hopkins experiments on the emotions of the infant. The chapter on "How the Behaviorist Studies" is an excellent popular statement of the modern experimental attitude toward child behavior, and gives a good idea of the technique of experimental nursery and laboratory. The chapters, "Fears of Children and How to Control Them," "The Dangers of Too Much Mother Love," and "Rage and Temper Tantrums and How to Control Them," are very illuminating and of practical application. *Psychological Care of Infant and Child* will prove especially useful to the teacher of the small child as a means of interesting and securing the cooperation of the parents of problem children.

H. W. Z.

The Nervous Child, by H. C. CAMERON. London: Oxford University Press, 1928 (reprint), viii + 233 pages.

The Nervous Child, written by H. C. Cameron, pediatrician of Guy's Hospital of London, was first printed in 1919. Since this excellent little volume is not widely known in this country, the reviewer takes the occasion of the recent issuing of a new edition to call it to the attention of THE JOURNAL's readers. Written by a physician, the book deals with the more

pathological behavior disorders of early childhood. Yet Doctor Cameron's point of view is psychological—"The nervous infant, restless, wriggling, and constantly crying! The nervous child, unstable, suggestible, passionate, and full of nameless fears! The nervous school boy or school girl prone to self-analysis, subject-conscious, and easily exhausted! And how many and how various are the manifestations of this temperament! Refusal of food, refusal of sleep, negativism, irresponsibility, and violent fits of temper, vomiting, diarrhea, morbid flushing and blushing, habit spasms, phobias—all controlled not by reproof or by medicine, but by good management and a clear understanding of their nature." Like the preceding volumes, *The Nervous Child* is full of practical suggestions on child management.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Your Nervous Child, by ERWIN WEXBERG. New York: Albert and Charles Boni, 1927, xiv + 178 pages.

Doctor Wexberg, the author of *Your Nervous Child*, is associated with Alfred Adler in the famous school clinics of Vienna. He sees various nervous symptoms as hysterical devices by which a child with a sense of inferiority tries to control the people about him. This feeling of inferiority, while it may have an organic basis, is largely due to faulty management on the part of parent and teacher, and the cure of nervousness lies in correcting that faulty management. "Happily we have passed beyond the spanking pedagogy of our grandparents. But should we, therefore, consider all pedagogy as old-fashioned and begin to educate the child only by the clever use of drops and injections? Of course not. The educated lay public is always a whole or at least a half generation behind the advance of science. And so we find that the present conception of "nervousness" in children as well as in adults has the significance that was attached to it by physicians thirty years ago. The fact that medical science no longer has the same conception of "nervousness" which it had at the end of the nineteenth century, that a tremendous transformation in psychiatric conceptions has taken place in the last three decades, is quite unknown to the lay public. This transformation can briefly be indicated thus: The causes, the manifestations, and the treatment of nervousness, in particular the nervousness of children, are not nearly so much a medical as a pedagogic problem." Doctor Wexberg illustrates his points with many interesting incidents from the practice of the Vienna clinics.

H. W. Z.

Educational Measurements, by NORMAN FENTON and DEAN A. WORCESTER. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1928, ix + 147 pages.

Educational Measurements, by Fenton and Worcester, is an elementary handbook, emphasizing material of practical use in the classroom. The chapter headings are: "Significance to the Teacher of the Tests-and-Measurements Movement"; "Meaning and Value of Intelligence Tests"; "Subject-Matter Tests and the Improvement of Teaching Efficiency"; "New-Type Examinations and their Daily Use in the Class-Room"; "Elementary Statistical Methods Useful to the Teacher"; and "A Form

for Studying and Recording the Characteristics of the Individual Child." The material is concisely and clearly presented, with brief selected bibliographies. Questions on the subject matter of each chapter adapt the book to use in teacher-training institutions.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Interpretation of Educational Measurements, by TRUMAN LEE KELLEY. Yonkers-on-the-Hudson: World Book Company, 1928, x + 363 pages.

Interpretation of Educational Measurements, by Truman Kelley, is a more complete and theoretical work dealing with the practice and significance of educational measurement. Unique features of the book are the study of intelligence and achievement measures in their mutual relationships, an emphasis on measures of reliability and an effort honestly to determine the trustworthiness of every conclusion reached, and the publication of the ratings for significance and reliability in individual measurement of all the well-known intelligence and educational tests.

The volume opens with a historical survey of mental measurement and a discussion of the purposes served by educational tests. There follow chapters on the measurement of group achievement, on the measurement of individual achievements, and the determination of individual idiosyncrasies. The latter of these chapters is of exceptional interest, being an attempt to isolate the measurable abilities which may differ from child to child, or among themselves in the case of the same child, as a result of idiosyncrasies of innate neural structure and function, that is as a result of original nature endowment. Doctor Kelley discards the notion of "general intelligence" as having little objective vindication and little pragmatic value. The argument on which the chapter is based is from statistical evidences solely. There will be many who feel that statistical evidences are of dubious reliability, when not supplemented by experiment, in distinguishing among original and acquired traits. Be this as it may, Doctor Kelley makes a strong case for the measurement of individual idiosyncrasy, and its implications for individualization of curriculum and vocational guidance.

Succeeding chapters deal with the detection of irregularities of development by means of the Stanford Achievement Test, elementary statistical procedure, and the technical arguments in support of principals used in preceding chapters. The two concluding chapters, totaling over one hundred and fifty pages, consider in turn all the well-known mental and education tests, giving the date of their construction, their reliability, the population used in determining this reliability, critical studies of the tests, and other pertinent data. These chapters will prove enlightening to many who, wishing to use tests intelligently but without expert knowledge of test construction, have found themselves swamped by the deluge of tests of the last decade.

A brief but excellent bibliography is appended, with a list of the houses publishing test materials. The volume is accurately and comprehensively indexed. All in all, it is an outstanding contribution to the literature of mental and educational measurements.

H. W. Z.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Mr. A. T. Stanforth of Floral Park, N. Y., who received his Ph.D. degree in New York University (1928) has accepted a position in the School of Education of Indiana University.

Mr. A. S. Rude of South Dakota who recently received his Ph.D. degree in educational psychology at New York University has been appointed a professor of education in the State Normal School at Lock Haven, Pennsylvania.

Assistant Professor H. W. Zorbaugh of the department of educational sociology of New York University returns to his position at the beginning of this year after enjoying a year of travel and recuperation of health in the Southwest.

Professor Henry L. Pritchett, head of the department of sociology of Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, returns to Dallas after spending a year's leave in which he completed his doctorate at New York University and assisted as an instructor in the department of educational sociology. Dr. Pritchett's dissertation was in the field of mental and social hygiene.

Mr. William Barlow Evans formerly dean of Thiel College and instructor in English and literature in New York University joins the faculty of the West Virginia State Normal at Fairmount as head of the English department. Mr. Evans received his Ph.D. degree in New York University in June. Professor Walter Barnes of the above institution came to New York University in exchange of positions to complete the doctorate in education.

Professor Philip W. L. Cox, head of the department of secondary education of New York University, taught in the School of Education of Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, during the past summer session. Professor and Mrs. Cox spent August and September in Europe.

Mr. Paul Irvine of the Montclair Junior High School who received his Ph.D. degree at New York University the past summer has been appointed to a position in education in the Colorado State College at Gunnison, Colorado.

Mr. John Patterson, superintendent of schools, Athens, Ohio, joined the faculty of education of New York University as a lecturer in education. He will finish his graduate study in school administration.

The following persons have been awarded tuition scholarships of \$200 each in the New York University School of Education for the Boys' Club Study for 1928-1929:

1. James Ruell Griffiths, Salt Lake City, Utah, assistant professor of physical education and director of physical education for men, University of Utah; A.B., University of Utah, 1914, graduate work, University of Utah, two years; playground director; Sponsor and Guardian of the Salt Lake City Boys' Club; Superintendent of Playgrounds, Salt Lake City 1911-1915; made survey of home recreation and facilities of several thousand

school children, Salt Lake City; made recreation survey of nearly 2,000 adolescents and adults; experience in mental and physical testing; experience in directing groups in play activities; twenty years of teaching experience, grade school, high school, and university.

2. Kenneth Everard Kepner, Newtonville, Massachusetts, A.B. Williams College; Director, Williamstown Boys' Club, 1926-1928; Director, Camp Lyon for Boys, Lenox, Massachusetts, 1927-1928; camping experience, seven years; experience in sailing, hiking, and woodcraft.

3. Miss Emma Sonya Schrieber, New York City; A.B., Wellesley College; graduate work, New York School of Social Work and Pennsylvania School of Social Work; M.A. in sociology, Columbia University; Wellesley Scholar; German prizes in high school and college; Immigration Department of the Council of Jewish Women; Farm and Rural Department of the Council of Jewish Women; Jewish Community Survey of Baltimore; Delinquency Section of the Jewish Communal Survey of Greater New York, made by the Bureau of Jewish Social Research; three years' field work on Lower East Side; six months' industrial welfare work; family case work, three years, Philadelphia; special skill in interviewing and experience in working with boys in problem situations.

4. Elton T. Gustafson, Manchester, New Hampshire, A.B., University of New Hampshire; A.M., University of New Hampshire; several years' experience with boys in Y. M. C. A. work; counselor at boys' camp three summers; skill in swimming, life saving, shorthand and typing; special training in social sciences in college.

5. DeAlton Partridge, Provo, Utah. Senior, Brigham Young University; Manager of Forensics, Brigham Young University, 1927-1928; assistant boys' camp director, three years; in Boy Scout movement, nine years; Eagle Scout; Field Executive, Boy Scouts of America, one year; at present on Research Staff, National Office, Boy Scouts of America; experienced in shorthand, typewriting, mental testing, community singing, leather working, woodcraft, and debating.

PROBLEMS OF AERONAUTICS IN THE SCHOOLS

Through the generosity of the Daniel Guggenheim Fund for the Promotion of Aeronautics, the Committee on Elementary and Secondary Aeronautical Education, of which Dean Withers is chairman, was enabled to conduct a course in "Problems of Aeronautics in the Schools" during the summer session of 1928. Scholarships were granted to qualified students, after such students had been recommended by their superintendents or by others capable of judging of their qualifications. The course was organized by Dr. Ralph E. Pickett, professor of vocational education, and was under the direction of Mr. Roland H. Spaulding.

Among the outstanding figures in the field of aeronautics who were invited to address the class were the following: Mr. Augustus Post, aeronautic expert; Mr. Ralph Upson, aeronautical engineer; Mr. Walter Hinton, transatlantic flyer and president of the Aviation Institute of the United States Army; Col. Paul Henderson, president, National Air Transport;

Major Gordon Reel, United States Army Reserve; Lieut. John Iseman, United States Navy Reserve; Mr. Harry F. Guggenheim, president, The Daniel Guggenheim Fund for the Promotion of Aeronautics, Inc.; Alexander Klemin, professor of aeronautical engineering, New York University; Lieut. Charles H. Grant, director, Duncan Camp of Boy Building; Mr. C. S. Jones, sales manager and chief test pilot, Curtiss Airplane and Motor Co.; Mr. J. N. Pierce, Pioneer Aircraft Instrument Co.; Dr. F. L. Hoffman, research consultant, Babson Institute; Mr. Luther K. Bell, secretary, Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce.

Each student worked on some topic in which he or she was vitally interested, and the results of the work constituted the contribution of each student to the course. A library of books and magazines was made available for the use of the students, and several model planes, slides, films, and other illustrative materials were presented to the group. Visits to several air fields and manufacturing plants were undertaken, and an opportunity was given each member of the class to fly at reduced rates through the courtesy extended at Curtiss field.

The contributions made by the students are to be utilized by Dean Withers's committee in order to help school systems throughout the country to introduce various types of aeronautical education in terms of the needs discovered by a study of those school systems.

The response to the course was so satisfactory that a similar course will be conducted during the academic year and during the next summer session.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Professor J. L. Meriam of the Department of Education of the University of California at Los Angeles received his A.B. at Oberlin; A.M. in Harvard and Ph. D. at Columbia. Professor Meriam has had wide and varied experience as teacher in village schools, high-school principal and superintendent of schools, as well as critic teacher and director of one of the most widely known experimental schools in the United States. For twenty years Dr. Meriam was professor of education and director of the Experimental School of the University of Missouri. A notable outcome of his work and experimental study was the publication of his book on *Child Life and the Curriculum*. This experimental school was one of the first attempts to set up a program of education of the interests and activities of child life. Professor Meriam is a nationally known figure as a lecturer on education in summer schools and teachers' conventions.

Mr. Herbert A. Tonne, an instructor in commercial education of the School of Education of New York University, received his Ph.B. at the University of Chicago; his A.M. at New York University, and is now completing his doctorate in the same institution. Mr. Tonne has been a teacher of commercial subjects in the high schools at Elizabeth, New Jersey, and New Rochelle, New York.

Professor Verner Martin Sims is at Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston, Louisiana.

Dr. Gladstone H. Yeuell, associate professor of education and assistant dean of the School of Education of the University of Cincinnati, is a native of Alabama. He received his A.B. at Alabama Presbyterian College; A.M. at the University of Chicago, and his doctorate at the University of Cincinnati. Dr. Yeuell had several years work in public education in Alabama as superintendent of schools, instructor in the State Normal School, and in the State Department of Education before going to Cincinnati.

A sketch of Dr. Stephen G. Rich appeared in a previous issue of THE JOURNAL.

The following note came too late to be inserted with Miss Mazie Earle Wagner's article on "Superstitions and Their Social and Psychological Correlatives Among College Students," in the September issue: "This experiment was conducted on the freshman class at the University of Buffalo during the winter of 1926-1927. The writer is indebted to Professor Edward S. Jones, director of personnel research, and Professor Niles Carpenter, head of the department of sociology, for much advice and criticism. Much of the material concerning the religion, race, emotional control, etc., of the subjects was obtained from the Office of Personnel Research."